

A Multidimensional Approach to the Opioid Epidemic

Authored by Koddus Ali

The opioid epidemic represents a critical public health crisis in the United States (U.S) and the United Kingdom (UK), characterised by a dramatic increase in opioid prescriptions and subsequent misuse, leading to a surge in overdose deaths. This epidemic has evolved over several decades, with its roots traceable to the late 20th century when aggressive marketing of opioid analgesics by pharmaceutical companies led to widespread prescribing practices that prioritised pain management without adequate consideration of the risks of addiction and misuse (Patel & Sternberg, 2017; Iacono, 2022). The Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) reported that in 2017 alone, opioids were involved in approximately 67.8% of all drug overdose deaths, highlighting the severity of the crisis (Clements et al., 2022). The complexity of the epidemic is further compounded by the emergence of synthetic opioids, such as fentanyl, which have significantly increased the lethality of opioid overdoses (González, 2024).

The scope of this analysis encompasses various dimensions of the opioid epidemic, including its epidemiology, the role of healthcare

providers, the impact of regulatory measures, and the sociocultural factors contributing to opioid misuse. Understanding the dynamics of opioid prescribing patterns is crucial, as studies have shown that a substantial proportion of individuals who misuse opioids initially obtained them through prescriptions (Clements et al., 2022; Agarwal et al., 2020). This underlines the importance of examining the prescribing behaviours of healthcare professionals, particularly surgeons and primary care physicians, who are often the gatekeepers of opioid access (Blay et al., 2018). Furthermore, the role of pharmacists as frontline healthcare providers in managing opioid prescriptions and educating patients about the risks associated with opioid use is increasingly recognised as vital in combating the epidemic (Vadie et al., 2022; Cochran et al., 2016).

In addition to healthcare provider practices, the analysis will explore the impact of community-level interventions and public health initiatives aimed at reducing opioid misuse and overdose deaths. For instance, the implementation of Prescription Drug Monitoring Programs (PDMPs) has been associated with a reduction in opioid prescriptions and misuse in various states (Finley et al., 2017). Furthermore, community engagement and awareness campaigns are essential for addressing the stigma associated with opioid use disorder and promoting harm reduction strategies, such as the distribution of naloxone, an opioid

antagonist that can reverse the effects of an overdose (Taubenberger et al., 2021; Shafer et al., 2017).

The opioid epidemic also intersects with other public health challenges, including mental health issues and socioeconomic factors that contribute to substance use disorders. The COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated these challenges, leading to increased isolation, stress, and disruptions in healthcare access, which have further intensified the opioid crisis (Manchikanti et al., 2021). The analysis will consider how these overlapping crises affect vulnerable populations, including pregnant women and newborns, who are particularly at risk due to the implications of opioid use during pregnancy (Prabhu, 2023).

Furthermore, the analysis will investigate into the portrayal of the opioid epidemic, which often sensationalises the issue and perpetuates stigma against individuals with substance use disorders (Azizoddin et al., 2021). This representation can influence public perception and policy responses, making it essential to critically assess how the narrative surrounding the epidemic shapes societal attitudes and healthcare practices.

Determinants of the Opioid Crisis

The opioid epidemic is a multifaceted crisis that has deeply entrenched itself in modern society, driven by a confluence of medical, social, and economic factors. Understanding these

contributors is not just an academic exercise but a necessity for creating effective strategies to mitigate the ongoing public health emergency. This crisis did not arise overnight; its roots can be traced back to the late 1990s, when pharmaceutical companies aggressively marketed opioids as safe and effective solutions for pain management. These companies often downplayed the risks of addiction, which led to widespread overprescribing of these powerful drugs. This initial push for opioid use resulted in a dramatic and alarming increase in opioid prescriptions, which quadrupled between 1999 and 2015. This surge in availability created a population increasingly dependent on these substances, not just for managing pain but also for emotional and psychological relief (Birnbaum et al., 2011; Guy et al., 2017). The ripple effects of this overprescribing have been profound, with the medical, social, and economic impacts still reverberating through society today.

A significant contributor to this epidemic is the medical community's lack of comprehensive training in pain management, compounded by the complexities inherent in treating chronic pain. Many healthcare providers, influenced by the pharmaceutical industry's assurances of the safety of opioids, prescribed these medications liberally without fully appreciating their addictive potential. This oversight has been directly linked to the rise in opioid use disorder (OUD) and the subsequent surge in overdose

deaths, which reached nearly 50,000 in 2019 alone (Chahin et al., 2021). The scale of this issue is staggering, with the CDC estimating the economic burden of opioid misuse at \$78.5 billion annually. These costs encompass a wide range of consequences, including increased healthcare expenditures, lost productivity due to workforce disruptions, and the significant expenses incurred by the criminal justice system (Birnbaum et al., 2011; Guy et al., 2017). This financial toll highlights the multifaceted impact of the epidemic, which goes far beyond individual suffering to affect entire communities and economic systems.

The social determinants of health further amplify the opioid epidemic, shedding light on the ways societal and community factors can exacerbate substance use disorders. Key factors such as socioeconomic status, education levels, and access to community resources significantly influence individuals' vulnerability to opioid misuse. In areas characterised by concentrated disadvantage, social isolation, and limited access to healthcare services, individuals are particularly susceptible to turning to opioids as a means of escaping physical and psychological trauma (Dasgupta et al., 2018). The interaction between these social factors and systemic failures within the healthcare system has created a fertile ground for opioid misuse to flourish. Furthermore, this environment often leads to polysubstance use, wherein individuals combine opioids with other

substances, such as stimulants, to amplify effects or mitigate withdrawal symptoms. This practice significantly increases the risk of overdose, further complicating the public health challenge (Barocas et al., 2019).

Economic contributors to the opioid epidemic are equally significant and highlight the deep interconnections between financial stability and public health. Economic downturns, particularly in rural regions such as Appalachia, have led to widespread despair and a pervasive sense of hopelessness among residents. These challenging conditions often drive individuals toward substance use as a coping mechanism to deal with the stress and uncertainty of their circumstances (Dasgupta et al., 2018). Beyond the individual level, the economic impact of the crisis extends to communities, imposing substantial burdens on emergency services, healthcare systems, and law enforcement agencies. The societal consequences of the opioid epidemic are vast, disrupting family structures, eroding community cohesion, and diminishing the overall quality of life in affected areas (Birnbaum et al., 2011; Salmond & Allread, 2019).

The evolution of the illicit drug market has further complicated the opioid crisis, introducing new challenges that intensify the already dire situation. The emergence of potent synthetic opioids, such as fentanyl, has dramatically increased the lethality of opioid

overdoses. According to the CDC, deaths involving synthetic opioids have risen sharply, significantly contributing to the overall increase in mortality associated with opioid use (Vivolo-Kantor et al., 2018). These substances are often mixed with other drugs, such as heroin or cocaine, frequently without the knowledge of users. This unintentional exposure has led to a surge in overdose deaths, even among populations previously considered at lower risk, highlighting the indiscriminate nature of the crisis (Vivolo-Kantor et al., 2018).

In response to the crisis, a range of policy measures has been implemented to curb opioid prescribing practices and address the underlying issues driving the epidemic. For instance, mandatory provider review laws and stricter regulations on pain clinics have shown promise in reducing the quantity of opioids prescribed and lowering overdose death rates (Dowell et al., 2016). However, these measures have also raised concerns about unintended consequences. As access to prescription opioids becomes more restricted, some individuals with opioid use disorder turn to more dangerous illicit substances, including heroin and fentanyl, which carry a higher risk of overdose and death (Wen & Hockenberry, 2018). This highlights the complexity of the crisis and the need for a balanced approach that ensures effective pain management while minimising the risk of misuse and addiction.

The opioid epidemic's profound impact on public health calls for comprehensive strategies that address its medical, social, and economic dimensions. Policymakers, healthcare providers, and community leaders must work collaboratively to develop solutions that go beyond immediate interventions. This includes enhancing education for healthcare providers about pain management and addiction, expanding access to mental health services, and fostering community resilience through targeted economic development and robust social support systems (Dasgupta et al., 2018; Salmond & Allread, 2019). Furthermore, ongoing research into alternative pain management therapies and innovative addiction treatments is essential for reducing reliance on opioids and addressing the root causes of substance use disorders. By adopting a multifaceted and coordinated approach, society can begin to reverse the devastating effects of the opioid epidemic and build a foundation for a healthier and more resilient future (Coussens et al., 2019).

Public Health Consequences

Health impacts of the opioid crisis are particularly severe, with opioid overdoses accounting for a significant proportion of drug-related fatalities. In 2018 alone, there were approximately 46,802 opioid-related overdose deaths in the U.S, representing 69.5% of all drug overdose deaths (Knorr et al., 2021). The crisis has not only

affected individuals with substance use disorders but has also had adverse effects on vulnerable populations, including cancer patients who may require opioids for pain management. Restrictions on opioid prescriptions, implemented in response to the epidemic, have led to decreased access for patients in need of pain relief, resulting in inadequate pain management and potential deterioration of quality of life (Chino et al., 2020). Furthermore, the opioid crisis has exacerbated health disparities, particularly among marginalised communities, where access to treatment and recovery resources is often limited (Biancuzzi et al., 2022).

The societal implications of the opioid crisis extend beyond individual health outcomes, affecting families and communities at large. The epidemic has contributed to increased rates of child neglect and abuse, as parents struggling with addiction may be unable to provide stable and nurturing environments for their children (Lee, 2023). This has led to a rise in cases of neonatal abstinence syndrome (NAS), where infants are born dependent on opioids, necessitating specialised medical care and intervention (Lee, 2023). Additionally, the crisis has strained community resources, including emergency services, healthcare facilities, and social support systems, which are often overwhelmed by the demands of addressing opioid-related emergencies and treatment needs (Coussens et al., 2019).

Additionally, the economic burden of the opioid crisis is not confined to direct healthcare costs; it also encompasses lost productivity due to absenteeism and reduced labour force participation. Between 2000 and 2016, opioid-related reductions in labour market participation were estimated to cost state and federal governments approximately \$36.1 billion in lost income tax revenue (Patton et al., 2022). This economic strain is compounded by the increased demand for social services, as individuals affected by opioid use disorder often require assistance from public welfare programs (Patton et al., 2022). The ripple effects of the crisis can be seen in various sectors, including law enforcement and the justice system, which bear the costs associated with drug-related crime and incarceration (Birnbaum et al., 2011).

The opioid epidemic has also highlighted the need for comprehensive public health strategies to address substance use disorders and prevent future crises. Efforts to implement PDMPs and regulate opioid prescribing practices have been initiated to mitigate the risk of addiction and overdose (Wen et al., 2018; Buchmueller & Carey, 2018). However, these measures must be balanced with the need for adequate pain management, particularly for patients with chronic conditions or those undergoing palliative care (Chino et al., 2020). The challenge lies in developing effective interventions that address both the

prevention of opioid misuse and the provision of necessary medical care for those in pain.

Policy and Regulatory Frameworks

The implementation of various policies and regulations aimed at curbing opioid misuse and its associated harms have included prescription monitoring programs, guidelines for opioid prescribing, and increased access to treatment for opioid use disorder. The effectiveness of these policies, however, has been a subject of extensive research and debate.

In the U.S, a variety of state-level policies have been enacted to address opioid prescribing practices. For instance, prior authorisation laws have been shown to limit access to higher-risk opioids, effectively reducing the number of high-dosage prescriptions. A study evaluating Oregon's Medicaid prior authorisation policy revealed a significant decrease in high-dosage opioid prescriptions following its implementation, alongside an increase in low-dosage prescriptions (Mauri et al., 2019). Similarly, the introduction of mandatory provider review laws and pain clinic regulations has been associated with reductions in opioid prescribing and overdose death rates (Dowell et al., 2016). These findings suggest that regulatory frameworks can play a crucial role in mitigating opioid misuse.

In addition to regulatory measures, educational interventions targeting healthcare providers have also been implemented. For example, the Veterans Affairs (VA) Health Care System initiated a population-level initiative aimed at opioid dose reduction, which included physician training and standardised pain management guidelines. This initiative resulted in a notable decrease in the mean prescribed daily opioid dose among patients (Westanmo et al., 2015). Such educational efforts are essential for fostering a culture of responsible prescribing and ensuring that healthcare providers are equipped with the knowledge necessary to manage pain effectively while minimising the risk of addiction.

The UK has also responded to the opioid crisis with a series of policy initiatives. The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) has developed guidelines to promote safer prescribing practices, emphasising the need for non-opioid alternatives as first-line treatments for chronic pain (Curtis et al., 2019). Additionally, the government has increased funding for addiction treatment services, recognising the importance of providing comprehensive care for individuals struggling with opioid use disorder (O'Mara, 2020). Despite these efforts, the UK has witnessed a rise in opioid-related deaths, indicating that the effectiveness of these policies may be limited and that further action is needed (Curtis et al., 2019).

One of the challenges in evaluating the effectiveness of opioid policies is the potential for unintended consequences. For instance, while efforts to restrict opioid prescriptions may reduce the availability of these medications, they can also lead to increased illicit drug use, as individuals may turn to heroin or synthetic opioids like fentanyl when prescribed opioids are no longer accessible (Barglow, 2018). This phenomenon has been observed in various studies, highlighting the need for a balanced approach that addresses both the supply of prescription opioids and the demand for illicit substances (Hartung et al., 2018).

Furthermore, disparities in opioid prescribing practices have raised concerns about equity in healthcare access. Research indicates that certain populations, particularly Black patients, may be disproportionately affected by opioid prescribing laws, which could exacerbate existing health disparities (Townsend et al., 2022). This emphasises the importance of considering the social determinants of health when formulating opioid policies, ensuring that all patients have equitable access to pain management and addiction treatment services.

The role of PDMPs has also been a focal point in the discussion of opioid regulation. PDMPs are designed to track prescriptions and identify potential misuse, thereby enabling healthcare providers to make informed decisions about patient care. Studies have shown

that states with robust PDMPs experience lower rates of opioid prescribing and overdose deaths (Chang et al., 2016). However, the effectiveness of these programs can vary based on implementation and compliance among healthcare providers (Rutkow et al., 2015).

Global Perspectives on Opioid Misuse

While the U.S. has been at the forefront of this crisis, with staggering rates of opioid prescriptions and related fatalities, other nations have also experienced significant challenges related to opioid misuse and addiction. Understanding the global sphere of the opioid epidemic can provide valuable insights into effective strategies for prevention and treatment, as well as highlight the importance of personalised approaches that consider cultural, economic, and healthcare system differences.

In the U.S, the opioid epidemic has been characterised by a dramatic increase in prescription opioid use. The crisis has been fuelled by the overprescription of opioids for pain management, often without adequate monitoring or consideration of the long-term consequences (Kolodny et al., 2015). This pattern of prescribing has not only resulted in widespread addiction but has also paved the way for the increased availability of illicit opioids, such as heroin and synthetic variants like fentanyl, which have further exacerbated the crisis (Volkow et al., 2019). The U.S. accounts for approximately 80% of the global opioid supply,

highlighting a significant disparity in access to these medications (Rose, 2017). This overconsumption has led to a public health emergency, prompting governmental declarations and the implementation of various strategies aimed at curbing opioid misuse (Richman & Krumholz, 2018).

In contrast, countries like Canada and Australia have also seen rising opioid prescription rates, but the context and implications differ. For instance, Canada had the highest per capita consumption of opioid analgesics in 2011, which has contributed to a significant increase in opioid-related deaths (Jimoh et al., 2018). The Canadian healthcare system's approach to pain management has faced scrutiny, with calls for improved guidelines and education for prescribers to mitigate the risks associated with opioid therapy (Holton et al., 2018). Similarly, Australia has experienced a surge in opioid prescriptions, leading to increased rates of addiction and overdose deaths, prompting public health initiatives aimed at reducing harm and improving treatment access (Kuo et al., 2020).

Globally, the opioid epidemic is not confined to high-income countries. Regions in Eastern Europe and parts of Sub-Saharan Africa have reported rising rates of opioid dependence and related health issues, contributing to a significant burden of disease (Degenhardt et al., 2014). The global consumption of opioids has

increased by 618% over the past two decades, highlighting the need for a comprehensive understanding of the factors driving this trend (Jimoh et al., 2018). In many low and middle-income countries, access to opioids for legitimate medical use remains severely restricted, leading to inadequate pain management and a lack of resources for treating OUD (Rose, 2017). This disparity highlights the importance of balancing the need for pain relief with the potential for misuse and addiction.

Lessons learned from the global response to the opioid epidemic emphasise the necessity of a multifaceted approach that includes prevention, treatment, and harm reduction strategies. For example, countries that have successfully implemented comprehensive public health policies, such as increased access to medication-assisted treatment (MAT) for OUD, have seen positive outcomes in reducing overdose deaths and improving recovery rates (Volkow et al., 2019). The integration of mental health services with substance use treatment has also proven beneficial, addressing the comorbidities often associated with opioid addiction (Volkow et al., 2019). Furthermore, public health campaigns aimed at reducing stigma and increasing awareness of the risks associated with opioid use have been effective in changing perceptions and behaviours surrounding opioid prescriptions (Holton et al., 2018).

Another critical lesson is the importance of data collection and monitoring to inform policy decisions and healthcare practices. Countries that have established robust surveillance systems to track opioid prescriptions, misuse, and overdose rates have been better equipped to respond to emerging trends and adjust their strategies accordingly (Holton et al., 2018). For instance, the implementation of PDMPs in various states across the U.S. has been associated with a reduction in opioid prescriptions and related fatalities (Holton et al., 2018). These programs serve as a model for other nations seeking to address similar challenges.

Additionally, the role of healthcare providers in the opioid epidemic cannot be overstated. Clinician awareness and education regarding the risks of opioid prescribing are crucial in preventing misuse and addiction (Mazurenko et al., 2020). Training programs that emphasise alternative pain management strategies and the importance of patient education can encourage healthcare professionals to make informed prescribing decisions (Holton et al., 2018). Additionally, fostering collaboration among healthcare providers, policymakers, and community organisations can enhance the effectiveness of interventions aimed at combating the opioid crisis (Holton et al., 2018).

The opioid epidemic also underlines the need for a global perspective on substance use disorders. As the crisis continues to

evolve, it is essential to recognise that opioid addiction is a complex issue influenced by a myriad of factors, including socioeconomic status, mental health, and cultural attitudes toward drug use (Zhang et al., 2022). Countries facing similar challenges can benefit from sharing best practices and learning from one another's experiences in addressing the epidemic. For instance, nations that have successfully implemented harm reduction strategies, such as supervised injection sites and needle exchange programs, have reported reductions in overdose deaths and improved health outcomes for individuals with OUD (Volkow et al., 2019).

Ethical and Social Implications

The opioid crisis has led to a complex interchange of ethical dilemmas and social stigmas surrounding opioid misuse and its management. The ethical considerations primarily revolve around the principles of autonomy, beneficence, nonmaleficence, and justice, which are often challenged in clinical settings where opioid prescriptions are involved. Patients suffering from chronic pain may demand opioid prescriptions, leading to ethical conflicts between patient autonomy and the physician's responsibility to avoid harm through potential overprescribing (Carnago, 2024). This dilemma is exacerbated by the stigma associated with OUD, which can

influence healthcare providers' decisions and patients' willingness to seek help (Brown et al., 2023; McCurry et al., 2022).

Stigma plays a significant role in shaping the experiences of individuals with OUD. Public stigma, characterised by negative stereotypes and attitudes toward those with substance use disorders, can lead to discrimination and social exclusion (Tsai et al., 2019). This stigma is not only external but also internalised, causing individuals to feel shame and guilt about their condition, which can hinder their recovery efforts (Bulls et al., 2022; Cheetham et al., 2022). The stigma surrounding opioid use is particularly pronounced in the context of cancer patients who require opioids for pain management. These patients may experience additional layers of stigma due to societal perceptions of opioid use as a moral failing, further complicating their treatment and self-management strategies (Azizoddin et al., 2021; Bulls et al., 2019).

The ethical implications of opioid prescribing are further complicated by the intersectionality of stigma with factors such as race, gender, and socioeconomic status. Marginalised groups often face compounded stigma, which can deter them from accessing necessary healthcare services (Cheetham et al., 2022). For instance, individuals from lower socioeconomic backgrounds may be viewed with greater suspicion when seeking opioid prescriptions, leading to disparities in treatment access and quality

(Somaini et al., 2021). This intersectionality highlights the need for healthcare providers to adopt a more nuanced understanding of the social determinants of health that influence opioid misuse and recovery (Cheetham et al., 2022).

Furthermore, the healthcare system itself can perpetuate stigma through policies and practices that marginalise individuals with OUD. For example, the reluctance of some healthcare providers to prescribe medications for opioid use disorder (MOUD) reflects a broader societal bias against those with substance use disorders (Bakos-Block, 2024). This bias can result in inadequate treatment options for patients who may benefit from MOUD, thereby exacerbating their condition and increasing the risk of overdose and other negative health outcomes (Chang et al., 2019). The stigma associated with MOUD is often rooted in misconceptions about addiction and recovery, which can further alienate patients from seeking help (Dickson-Gómez et al., 2022).

In addition to the ethical dilemmas faced by healthcare providers, patients with OUD often encounter significant barriers when attempting to access treatment. These barriers include not only the stigma associated with their condition but also systemic issues such as insurance limitations and regulatory restrictions on opioid prescribing (Azizoddin et al., 2021; Winkelman et al., 2018). The implementation of stricter prescribing guidelines, while aimed at

curbing the opioid epidemic, can inadvertently lead to undertreatment of patients who genuinely require pain management, raising ethical concerns about justice and equitable access to care (Yan & Kuo, 2019).

The role of education in addressing these ethical dilemmas and stigmas cannot be overstated. Medical education must incorporate training on the complexities of opioid prescribing, including the ethical considerations involved in balancing patient needs with the risks of addiction. By fostering a more compassionate and informed approach to opioid management, healthcare professionals can help mitigate the stigma associated with OUD and promote better health outcomes for affected individuals (Kyzar, 2024). Furthermore, public health campaigns aimed at reducing stigma can play a crucial role in reshaping societal perceptions of opioid use and encouraging individuals to seek help without fear of judgment (Rath et al., 2021; Kennedy-Hendricks et al., 2017).

Conclusion

The opioid epidemic represents a multi-layered public health crisis with profound medical, social, and economic consequences that extend beyond the borders of the U.S. This crisis, rooted in decades of systemic failures in pain management, aggressive pharmaceutical marketing, and inadequate regulation, continues to devastate individuals, families, and communities worldwide. While significant strides have been made in understanding the determinants of opioid misuse, the epidemic underlines the complexity of balancing adequate pain management with the prevention of addiction and overdose.

Addressing the opioid epidemic requires a coordinated, multidisciplinary approach that integrates evidence-based policies, public health interventions, and community-driven solutions. Efforts such as (PDMPs, regulatory reforms, and increased access to MAT have demonstrated promise in mitigating the epidemic's impact. However, unintended consequences, such as the transition to illicit opioids, highlight the need for adaptive strategies that respond to the dynamic nature of the crisis. The integration of mental health services, harm reduction initiatives, and targeted economic development can further strengthen the response to this epidemic, particularly in marginalised and

vulnerable populations disproportionately affected by opioid misuse.

Furthermore, addressing the stigma surrounding opioid use disorder and the ethical dilemmas inherent in opioid prescribing is essential for fostering equitable access to treatment and improving patient outcomes. Public health campaigns, enhanced education for healthcare providers, and the dismantling of systemic barriers to care are critical for reducing stigma and promoting recovery. Globally, the opioid epidemic emphasises the importance of cultural sensitivity and personalised interventions to meet the unique needs of diverse populations.

Finally, reversing the opioid epidemic requires sustained commitment from policymakers, healthcare providers, researchers, and communities to implement comprehensive, compassionate, and evidence-based solutions. By learning from past failures and leveraging innovative approaches, society can not only mitigate the current crisis but also build resilience against future public health challenges, ensuring a healthier and more equitable future for all.

References

Agarwal, A., Roberts, A., Dusetzina, S., & Royce, T. (2020). Changes in opioid prescribing patterns among generalists and oncologists for medicare part d beneficiaries from 2013 to 2017. *Jama Oncology*, 6(8), 1271. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2020.2211>

Azizoddin, D., Knoerl, R., Adam, R., Kessler, D., Tulsy, J., Edwards, R., ... & Enzinger, A. (2021). Cancer pain self-management in the context of a national opioid epidemic: experiences of patients with advanced cancer using opioids. *Cancer*, 127(17), 3239-3245. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.33532>

Bakos-Block, C. (2024). "my addiction doesn't define me"—experiences of stigma among mothers with opioid use disorder. *Pharmacoepidemiology*, 3(1), 57-68. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharma3010004>

Barglow, P. (2018). Commentary: the opioid overdose epidemic: evidence-based interventions. *American Journal on Addictions*, 27(8), 605-607. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajad.12823>

Barocas, J., Wang, J., Marshall, B., Larochelle, M., Bettano, A., Bernson, D., ... & Walley, A. (2019). Sociodemographic factors and social determinants associated with toxicology confirmed

polysubstance opioid-related deaths. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 200, 59-63.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.03.014>

Biancuzzi, H., Mas, F., Brescia, V., Camprostrini, S., Cascella, M., Cuomo, A., ... & Miceli, L. (2022). Opioid misuse: a review of the main issues, challenges, and strategies. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(18), 11754.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph191811754>

Birnbaum, H., White, A., Schiller, M., Waldman, T., Cleveland, J., & Roland, C. (2011). Societal costs of prescription opioid abuse, dependence, and misuse in the united states. *Pain Medicine*, 12(4), 657-667. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-4637.2011.01075.x>

Blay, E., Nooromid, M., Bilimoria, K., Holl, J., Lambert, B., & Johnson, J. (2018). Variation in post-discharge opioid prescriptions among members of a surgical team. *The American Journal of Surgery*, 216(1), 25-30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjsurg.2017.10.035>

Brown, R., Batty, E., Lofwall, M., Kiviniemi, M., & Kizewski, A. (2023). Opioid use-related stigma and health care decision-making. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 37(2), 222-227.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000830>

Buchmueller, T. and Carey, C. (2018). The effect of prescription drug monitoring programs on opioid utilization in medicare. *American Economic Journal Economic Policy*, 10(1), 77-112.

<https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.20160094>

Bulls, H., Hamm, M., Wasilko, R., Cameron, F., Belin, S., Goodin, B., ... & Schenker, Y. (2022). Manifestations of opioid stigma in patients with advanced cancer: perspectives from patients and their support providers. *Jco Oncology Practice*, 18(10), e1594-e1602.

<https://doi.org/10.1200/op.22.00251>

Bulls, H., Hoogland, A., Craig, D., Paice, J., Chang, Y., Oberoi-Jassal, R., ... & Jim, H. (2019). Cancer and opioids: patient experiences with stigma (copes)—a pilot study. *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management*, 57(4), 816-819.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2019.01.013>

Carnago, L. (2024). Ethical considerations and decision making in opioid prescribing for chronic pain: a case study in rheumatology practice. *Journal of the American Association of Nurse Practitioners*, 36(5), 300-306. <https://doi.org/10.1097/jxx.0000000000001002>

Chahin, M., Matosz, S., Khalel, I., Day, S., & Keruakous, A. (2021). Pain management in oncology patients amidst the opioid epidemic: how

to minimize non-medical opioid use. *Cureus*.

<https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.19500>

Chang, H., Lyapustina, T., Rutkow, L., Daubresse, M., Richey, M., Faul, M., ... & Alexander, G. (2016). Impact of prescription drug monitoring programs and pill mill laws on high-risk opioid prescribers: a comparative interrupted time series analysis. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 165, 1-8.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2016.04.033>

Chang, K., Lin, C., Chang, C., Ting, S., Cheng, C., & Wang, J. (2019). Psychological distress mediated the effects of self-stigma on quality of life in opioid-dependent individuals: a cross-sectional study. *Plos One*, 14(2), e0211033. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0211033>

Cheetham, A., Picco, L., Barnett, A., Lubman, D., & Nielsen, S. (2022). The impact of stigma on people with opioid use disorder, opioid treatment, and policy. *Substance Abuse and Rehabilitation*, Volume 13, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.2147/sar.s304566>

Chino, F., Kamal, A., & Chino, J. (2020). Incidence of opioid-associated deaths in cancer survivors in the united states, 2006-2016. *Jama Oncology*, 6(7), 1100.

<https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2020.0799>

Clements, C., Hanson, K., Zavaleta, K., Stitz, A., Clark, S., Schwarz, R., ... & Gazelka, H. (2022). Collaborative improvement on acute opioid prescribing among diverse health systems. *Plos One*, 17(6), e0270179. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0270179>

Cochran, G., Hruschak, V., & DeFosse, B. (2016). Prescription opioid abuse: pharmacists' perspective and response. *Integrated Pharmacy Research and Practice*, Volume 5, 65-73. <https://doi.org/10.2147/iprp.s99539>

Coussens, N., Sittampalam, G., Jonson, S., Hall, M., Gorby, H., Tamiz, A., ... & Rasmussen, K. (2019). The opioid crisis and the future of addiction and pain therapeutics. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 371(2), 396-408. <https://doi.org/10.1124/jpet.119.259408>

Curtis, H., Croker, R., Walker, A., Richards, G., & Quinlan, J. (2019). Opioid prescribing trends and geographical variation in England, 1998–2018: a retrospective database study. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 6(2), 140-150. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s2215-0366\(18\)30471-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2215-0366(18)30471-1)

Dasgupta, N., Beletsky, L., & Ciccarone, D. (2018). Opioid crisis: no easy fix to its social and economic determinants. *American Journal of Public Health*, 108(2), 182-186. <https://doi.org/10.2105/ajph.2017.304187>

Degenhardt, L., Charlson, F., Mathers, B., Hall, W., Flaxman, A., Johns, N., ... & Vos, T. (2014). The global epidemiology and burden of opioid dependence: results from the global burden of disease 2010 study. *Addiction*, 109(8), 1320-1333.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/add.12551>

Dickson-Gómez, J., Spector, A., Weeks, M., Galletly, C., McDonald, M., & Green, D. (2022). "you're not supposed to be on it forever": medications to treat opioid use disorder (moud) related stigma among drug treatment providers and people who use opioids. *Substance Abuse Research and Treatment*, 16.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/11782218221103859>

Dowell, D., Zhang, K., Noonan, R., & Hockenberry, J. (2016). Mandatory provider review and pain clinic laws reduce the amounts of opioids prescribed and overdose death rates. *Health Affairs*, 35(10), 1876-1883. <https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2016.0448>

Finley, E., Garcia, A., Rosen, K., McGeary, D., Pugh, M., & Potter, J. (2017). Evaluating the impact of prescription drug monitoring program implementation: a scoping review. *BMC Health Services Research*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-017-2354-5>

González, O. (2024). Opioid abuse, the escalating crisis, xylazine co-use, and the forensic toxicology challenges. *Forensic Science Today*, 10(1), 001-005. <https://doi.org/10.17352/fst.000025>

Guy, G., Zhang, K., Bohm, M., Losby, J., Lewis, B., Young, R., ... & Dowell, D. (2017). Vital signs: changes in opioid prescribing in the united states, 2006–2015. *MMWR Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, 66(26), 697-704. <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6626a4>

Hartung, D., Kim, H., Ahmed, S., Middleton, L., Keast, S., Deyo, R., ... & McConnell, K. (2018). Effect of a high dosage opioid prior authorization policy on prescription opioid use, misuse, and overdose outcomes. *Substance Abuse*, 39(2), 239-246. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08897077.2017.1389798>

Holton, D., White, E., & McCarty, D. (2018). Public health policy strategies to address the opioid epidemic. *Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 103(6), 959-962. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt.992>

Iacono, T. (2022). Modernizing regulations for treating opioid use disorder during the covid-19 pandemic. *Jaapa*, 35(2), 57-59. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.jaa.0000805844.19200.b3>

Jimoh, K., Matthews, D., Brilliant, M., & Sketris, I. (2018). Pattern of opioid analgesic prescription for adults by dentists in nova scotia,

canada. *JDR Clinical & Translational Research*, 3(2), 203-211.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/2380084418761330>

Kennedy-Hendricks, A., Barry, C., Gollust, S., Ensminger, M., Chisolm, M., & McGinty, E. (2017). Social stigma toward persons with prescription opioid use disorder: associations with public support for punitive and public health-oriented policies. *Psychiatric Services*, 68(5), 462-469. <https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ps.201600056>

Knorr, J., Barlow, A., Reinaker, T., & Zaki, R. (2021). A single dose of pre-operative pregabalin reduces post-operative opioid use after orthotopic liver transplantation. *Clinical Transplantation*, 35(7).

<https://doi.org/10.1111/ctr.14319>

Kolodny, A., Courtwright, D., Hwang, C., Kreiner, P., Eadie, J., Clark, T., ... & Alexander, G. (2015). The prescription opioid and heroin crisis: a public health approach to an epidemic of addiction. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 36(1), 559-574.

<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031914-122957>

Kuo, J., Huang, Y., Kluger, M., Hershman, D., Chabot, J., Lee, J., ... & Wright, J. (2020). Use and misuse of opioids after endocrine surgery operations. *Annals of Surgery Open*, 274(6), e1144-e1152.

<https://doi.org/10.1097/sla.0000000000003777>

Kyzar, E. (2024). Leveraging neuroscience education to address stigma related to opioid use disorder in the community: a pilot study. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 15.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2024.1360356>

Lee, M. (2023). Minimizing the consequences of neonatal abstinence syndrome in the american indian and alaska native populations of california. *Journal of Student Research*, 12(3).

<https://doi.org/10.47611/jsrhs.v12i3.4866>

Manchikanti, L., Vanaparthi, R., Atluri, S., Sachdeva, H., Kaye, A., & Hirsch, J. (2021). Covid-19 and the opioid epidemic: two public health emergencies that intersect with chronic pain. *Pain and Therapy*, 10(1), 269-286. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40122-021-00243-2>

Mauri, A., Townsend, T., & Haffajee, R. (2019). The association of state opioid misuse prevention policies with patient- and provider-related outcomes: a scoping review. *Milbank Quarterly*, 98(1), 57-105.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0009.12436>

Mazurenko, O., Andraka-Christou, B., Kara, A., & Harle, C. (2020). Clinical perspectives on hospitals' role in the opioid epidemic. *BMC Health Services Research*, 20(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-020-05390-4>

McCurry, M., Avery-Desmarais, S., Schuler, M., Tyo, M., Viveiros, J., & Kauranen, B. (2022). Perceived stigma, barriers, and facilitators experienced by members of the opioid use disorder community when seeking healthcare. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 55(3), 701-710. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jnu.12837>

O'Mara, B. (2020). The effectiveness of changes to drug policy, regulation and legislation for reducing harms associated with opioids and supporting their medicinal use in australia, canada and the uk: a systematic review. *Evidence Base*, 2020(2), 79-110. <https://doi.org/10.21307/eb-2020-004>

Patel, S. and Sternberg, P. (2017). Association between opioid prescribing patterns and abuse in ophthalmology. *Jama Ophthalmology*, 135(11), 1216. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaophthalmol.2017.4055>

Patton, T., Revill, P., Sculpher, M., & Bórquez, A. (2022). Using economic evaluation to inform responses to the opioid epidemic in the united states: challenges and suggestions for future research. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 57(5), 815-821. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10826084.2022.2026969>

Prabhu, S. (2023). Evaluating the effect of the opioid epidemic on pregnant women and newborns in america. *Journal of Student Research*, 12(4). <https://doi.org/10.47611/jsrhs.v12i4.5387>

Rath, J., Perks, S., Vallone, D., Barton, A., Stephens, D., Simard, B., ... & Hair, E. (2021). Educating young adults about opioid misuse: evidence from a mass media intervention. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(1), 22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19010022>

Richman, I. and Krumholz, H. (2018). Lessons from the opioid epidemic to reinvigorate tobacco control initiatives. *Jama*, 319(4), 339. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2017.19739>

Rose, M. (2017). Are prescription opioids driving the opioid crisis? assumptions vs facts. *Pain Medicine*, 19(4), 793-807. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pm/pnx048>

Rutkow, L., Chang, H., Daubresse, M., Webster, D., Stuart, E., & Alexander, G. (2015). Effect of florida's prescription drug monitoring program and pill mill laws on opioid prescribing and use. *Jama Internal Medicine*, 175(10), 1642. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2015.3931>

Salmond, S. and Allread, V. (2019). A population health approach to america's opioid epidemic. *Orthopaedic Nursing*, 38(2), 95-108.

<https://doi.org/10.1097/nor.0000000000000521>

Shafer, E., Bergeron, N., Smith-Ray, R., Robson, C., & O'Koren, R. (2017). A nationwide pharmacy chain responds to the opioid epidemic. *Journal of the American Pharmacists Association*, 57(2), S123-S129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.japh.2016.12.075>

Singh, R., & Pushkin, G. W. (2019). How should medical education better prepare physicians for opioid prescribing? *AMA Journal of Ethics*, 21(8), E636-641. <https://doi.org/10.1001/amajethics.2019.636>

Somainsi, L., Vecchio, S., Corte, C., Coppola, C., Mahony, A., Pitts, A., ... & Littlewood, R. (2021). Prolonged-release buprenorphine therapy in opioid use disorder can address stigma and improve patient quality of life. *Cureus*. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.18513>

Taubenberger, S., Spencer, N., Chang, J., Paul, N., Fabre, S., Jagessar, B., ... & Hacker, K. (2021). A rapid-cycle assessment strategy for understanding the opioid overdose epidemic in local communities. *Substance Abuse*, 42(4), 888-895.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/08897077.2021.1891601>

Townsend, T., Bohnert, A., Lagisetty, P., & Haffajee, R. (2022). Did prescribing laws disproportionately affect opioid dispensing to black patients?. *Health Services Research*, 57(3), 482-496.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.13968>

Tsai, A., Kiang, M., Barnett, M., Beletsky, L., Keyes, K., McGinty, E., ... & Venkataramani, A. (2019). Stigma as a fundamental hindrance to the united states opioid overdose crisis response. *Plos Medicine*, 16(11), e1002969. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002969>

Vadiei, N., Eldridge, L., Meyerson, B., & Agle, J. (2022). "the gatekeepers in prevention": community pharmacist perceptions of their role in the opioid epidemic. *Substance Abuse*, 43(1), 319-327. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08897077.2021.1941516>

Vivolo-Kantor, A., Seth, P., Gladden, R., Mattson, C., Baldwin, G., Kite-Powell, A., ... & Coletta, M. (2018). vital signs: trends in emergency department visits for suspected opioid overdoses — united states, july 2016–september 2017. *MMWR Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, 67(9), 279-285.

<https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6709e1>

Volkow, N., Jones, E., Einstein, E., & Wargo, E. (2019). Prevention and treatment of opioid misuse and addiction. *Jama Psychiatry*, 76(2), 208. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2018.3126>

Wen, H. and Hockenberry, J. (2018). Association of medical and adult-use marijuana laws with opioid prescribing for medicaid enrollees. *Jama Internal Medicine*, 178(5), 673.

<https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2018.1007>

Wen, H., Hockenberry, J., & Pollack, H. (2018). Association of buprenorphine-waivered physician supply with buprenorphine treatment use and prescription opioid use in medicaid enrollees. *Jama Network Open*, 1(5), e182943.

<https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2018.2943>

Westanmo, A., Marshall, P., Jones, E., Burns, K., & Krebs, E. (2015). Opioid dose reduction in a va health care system—implementation of a primary care population-level initiative. *Pain Medicine*, 16(5), 1019-1026. <https://doi.org/10.1111/pme.12699>

Winkelman, T., Chang, V., & Binswanger, I. (2018). Health, polysubstance use, and criminal justice involvement among adults with varying levels of opioid use. *Jama Network Open*, 1(3), e180558.

<https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2018.0558>

Yan, E. and Kuo, D. (2019). 'i just need an opiate refill to get me through the weekend'. *Journal of Medical Ethics*, 45(4), 219-224.

<https://doi.org/10.1136/medethics-2018-105099>

Zhang, J., Song, C., Dai, J., Li, L., Yang, X., & Chen, Z. (2022).

Mechanism of opioid addiction and its intervention therapy: focusing on the reward circuitry and mu-opioid receptor. *Medcomm*, 3(3).

<https://doi.org/10.1002/mco2.148>